The International Journal for

THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

The Official Publication of the
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF INSTRUCTORS OF THE BLIND
A Magazine for
Teachers and Parents of Visually Handicapped Children

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THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND, INC.

A Counter to the Starvation Hold

By R. E. Hartman, Wrestling Coach

Arkansas School for the Blind

A few days before writing this article, I witnessed the weigh-in ceremonies of a wrestling tournament, a weigh-in which was, for me, one of the most gratifying experiences in all my dozen-odd years of coaching wrestling. It contrasted sharply with those I have witnessed before, whereat most of the boys had approached the scales fearfully, lest they still be overweight after several days of severe dieting or downright starvation, and of unbearable, even dangerous, dehydration. The boys at this weigh-in did not have that sickly appearance of sunken cheeks and stomachs which distinguishes the amateur wrestler from the participant in practically every other sport. And—most surprising of all differences—the great majority of contestants did not balance the scales precariously at the very top of their weight limitations. The few youngsters who were overweight were in the lower weights and in the years of rapid growth.

Fifty-four boys stepped onto the scales. Out of that number, 33 were not only below the three-pound limit allowed in their weight classes, but actually weighed *less* than each weight-class designation, itself. Of the 21 who weighed more than their weight-class specifications, 16 weighed a full pound or more below the three-pound limit. Only 8 boys had been "making weight" the day before weigh-in. And only one boy alone—an 85-pounder who had been growing rapidly during the wrestling season—had any appreciable difficulty getting down to the top limit of 88 pounds.

In other words, 46 boys out of 54 had no trouble whatsoever qualifying for their weight classes. Moreover, for these 46, the trips to the tournament had been enjoyable excursions away from their schools, not marred by a dominating awareness of gnawing hunger cramps in their stomachs. They had been able (of all things!) to eat substantial meals enroute! For them, wrestling was no longer "the starvation sport."

In the Southwestern Association of Schools for the Blind, that ignominious title can no longer be applied to wrestling. Our boys completed a season in February, 1959, during which they wrestled against each other at, or very near, their *normal* body weights; a season during which wrestling ability itself, rather than the ability to reduce excessive poundage, was the determining factor in winning victories.

Wrestling: the "Starvation Sport"

Throughout most of America, however, the term "starvation sport" continues to be an apt description of amateur wrestling. The common practice among most wrestling coaches is to reduce their athletes, by means of "crash diets" and dehydration, to at least one weight class, and frequently two, below their normal body weights. Indeed, instances where a boy was "moved down" three weight divisions are by no means unheard of. The less scrupulous coaches—and sometimes the wrestlers, themselves, without the knowledge or approval of their coaches—often employ actual starvation and harsh laxatives for several days at a time to accomplish drastic weight reduction. Dehydration is sometimes carried to the extreme of endangering vital organs.

Of course, after weigh-in the boys resume their normal intake of food and water and within a day or two return to their normal weights. But, before the

next meet, they have it all to do over again. Can we honestly believe that such a procedure is good for our boys? No, of course not. Oh, certainly we contend that it helps a boy develop self-discipline and "character." But are these qualities, which can be taught in other ways, worth the price of endangering a boy's health?

We can argue, quite probably with genuine conviction, that no wrestler has ever been seriously or, in so far as we know, permanently injured by excessive weight reduction. The wrestlers on our campuses, we point out, are generally the strongest and most rugged of all our boys. But it must be remembered that the boy with an inclination to wrestle is usually an "athletic type"—a mesomorphic type, as Dr. Sheldon says—who would doubtlessly grow stronger and heavier for his height than his age peers even if he did not wrestle. It is only logical to assume, then, that the vigorous activity and powerful resistances he encounters in wrestling will serve to stimulate his natural tendency toward superior muscular and skeletal development. Through wrestling he will probably get bigger and stronger than he would have gotten otherwise. Nevertheless, he must maintain a week-by-week regimen of "holding his weight," in diametric opposition to all the other benefits he derives from wrestling.

What is the purpose of drastic weight loss in wrestling? It all started a great many years ago when some coach discovered that he could win meets by reducing older, stronger boys to lower weight classes long enough to weigh in and be matched against opponents who were naturally much lighter, weaker, and, with luck, younger. But the successful must pay the price of being emulated. Eventually, other coaches caught on until the practice became so common that textbooks on wrestling, written by college coaches, acknowledged its existence by including instructions for quick weight reduction.

However, the very universality of this strategy has defeated its original purpose and created another. Nowadays, coaches must continue to move their wrestlers into lower weight classes, *not* usually to match them against lighter opponents but to escape the heavier opponents who, the coaches know, will also move down. A boy who normally weighs 127 pounds, for instance, must be reduced to 120, so that he will not have to wrestle an opponent who has reduced to 127 from 140 pounds. Starvation in wrestling nowadays is a retreat rather than an attack. That's the gist of it: move down or get beaten.

Advantages to New System

What would happen if we were simply to agree to discontinue it? It is quite likely that we would find that in most instances the same boys would be meeting in individual matches—wrestling at their normal body weights instead of at weights one division lower. Wrestling ability, itself, would be the determining factor in each victory. Coaches would seldom need to hesitate to fill empty spaces on their teams by moving exceptional wrestlers one division above their normal body weights, knowing the boys they would wrestle would not have pulled down, and knowing that good little wrestlers repeatedly, in practice sessions, defeat skilled teammates five to ten pounds heavier—daily proof that a proficient wrestler can hold his own against an opponent who is *normally* only one bracket above him. Finally, when the word got around that severe dieting and dehydration were no longer season-long necessities, wrestling coaches would probably find themselves with a lot more candidates for their teams. Boys like to wrestle, they like to be thought of as "wrestlers" (a magical word which implies muscular strength and a mysterious physical superiority), they like the distinction of being "out for wrestling"; but they do not like to miss meals, they do not like to pass water fountains by

when their whole beings cry out for a drink; they do not like the ascetic self-denial which is more characteristic of wrestling than of any other sport.

So, since we cannot deny that drastic weight reduction does exist and that it sooner or later must be terminated if wrestling is to survive the current public criticism leveled at it and the refusal of parents to allow their sons to wrestle, why don't we openly avow that we will hereafter match our wrestlers in those weight divisions comparable to their normal body weights?

That question strikes you as being a little amusing, doesn't it, Coach? Sardonically amusing! You know, as well as I, that there would come forth a barrage of such protests as these: How can you determine what a boy's "normal" body weight is? What about the boy who begins the season with several pounds of fat on his body and removes it in the course of getting in condition? Even when a wrestler is not fat, is his normal weight his best wrestling weight? If pulling down is eliminated, how can a coach maintain a full, well-balanced team when his school's enrollment does not supply him with an overflow of candidates?

Also, you and I know what chance a verbal "gentleman's agreement" among coaches to stop reducing boys would have of succeeding. There would always be one or more coaches who would blithely ignore any such pact and go right on reducing their boys, making it once again an offensive maneuver, chuckling at the stupidity of the rest of us, while we, meanwhile, maintain the efficiency of our own sweat boxes. Gentlemen's agreement! A nice euphemism, about as realistic as a referee's decision!

A Compromise Suggested

The situation demands a compromise; a system somewhere between extreme weight loss and no reduction at all, even for boys encumbered with fat. It must be a system which will place a wrestler in a division close to his normal body weight when he is in the pink of condition—which means when he is no longer fat, when he has attained the point of strength and endurance which, for him, is best, *and* when he is still receiving an adequate number of calories per day for a boy of his age and size engaging in vigorous physical activity. Also, it must be a system which will allow a wrestler to grow during the wrestling season and still remain within, or near, his assigned weight class without the necessity of severe weekly crash dieting. Finally, it must insure the cooperation of all coaches, which is to say it must be a system of written regulations virtually impossible to circumvent and strictly administered by officers of the conference other than the coaches themselves.

In the Southwest Association of Schools for the Blind, such a compromise system is in effect. It is not a system of our own; it is the Weight Reduction Handicap Plan originated by Coach Vernon Ekfelt, of North High School, Omaha, Nebraska, but does contain one revision of ours which I think makes it into a very sensible approach to weight control in wrestling.

And, while I do not pretend to speak for every official of the Southwestern Association, I heartily endorse the Ekfelt system, as we applied it this past season, because of the very obvious reasons mentioned at the opening of this article; namely, that our boys wrestled in their annual tournament at weight divisions comparable, or very near, their normal body weights, that they did not have to endure the usual several days of weight loss to make those divisions, and that they nevertheless wrestled just as well, in matches just as closely contested, as they have ever wrestled before.

How It Works

Just prior to the opening of wrestling season, the president of the conference, or some person designated by him, sends a notification to all member schools announcing a "weigh-in day"—for example, one week after the date of the notification. On this day, each school must weigh every boy who will be a candidate for its wrestling team for that season, the actual body weights being recorded and witnessed by the school's coach, two officials, and a disinterested outsider. To each of these weights a "handicap" of from five to nine pounds is added, the amount of the handicap depending upon the actual body weight of each boy. Boys weighing less than 100 pounds receive five handicap pounds; those weighing between 100 and 120 have six handicap pounds added; between 120 and 140, seven pounds; 140 to 160, eight pounds; and 160 through heavyweight, nine pounds.

Thus the weight class in which each boy is entered is determined *at the opening of wrestling season* by his actual weight plus his handicap. For example, a boy who weighs 112 pounds on weighing-in day receives a six-pound handicap, making what may be called his "adjusted" weight 118; he is therefore eligible for the 120 weight class. A boy who weights 121 takes a seven-pound handicap, totaling 128 and making him eligible to wrestle in the 133 weight division.

System Has Practical Application

Let's assume that a boy returns to school in the fall with a moderate amount of fat upon his body. He is eighteen and no longer growing rapidly. The previous year he had been able, after repeated crash diets, torturous sweat-box sessions, and days without water, to wrestle in the 133 weight class throughout the season. But now he weighs an appalling 147 pounds. Under the old starvation system it is conceivable that he could again represent the 133 class. But the conference of which his school is a member has adopted the Ekfelt handicap system. Since he understands only the old traditional idea that a wrestler must compete at his lowest possible weight to have an chance at all of winning, he distrusts this new handicap business and sets out to defeat it in the only way he knows how, by pulling weight with a redoubled determination. He trains hard, limits starches and avoids sweets; and those pounds of fat melt away. Then, when his coach announces the official weigh-in date, he goes on the familiar starvation regimen for the few days remaining. On weigh-in day, he balances the scales at 133 pounds—a seventeen pound loss and a pound more than he had been able to accomplish the previous year, but nevertheless disappointing. Since he weighs between 120 and 140 he must take a seven-pound handicap, which puts his adjusted weight at 140 and qualifies him, not for 133 nor 138, but the 145-pound bracket. That handicap is a dirty deal! What was the use of losing all that weight? What, indeed! In a few weeks of hard training, he finds that his normal weight, without fat, is about 145. He has made no effort, other than daily workouts, to hold it down. On the day of his first meet, he has a couple of surprises in store. First, he is amazed to discover that his opponent is the same fellow he had wrestled the previous year in the 133 bracket. Secondly, he finds that he is stronger during his match, seems to have more energy, endurance, and explosive power than ever before. But so does his opponent. For the first time in their several encounters, the other boy nearly defeats him, and when the two discuss the new weight system later, our boy discovers that the other fellow had lost only the amount of the seven-pound handicap below the 145 bracket, or down to 138 pounds. Could that have been the reason for his improved wrestling? It is hard to say, but

of one thing you can be sure: next year, our lad's senior year, he will drop only enough weight to qualify for the weight division just below the poundage he carries back to school in the fall. That handicap makes it silly to try for two!

The Ekfelt system is not unfamiliar to schools for the blind. One association, to my knowledge, tried it, then discarded it after discovering the one weakness which has drawn the bulk of criticism of it; which was that after a boy's weight division had been determined by his initial body weight and handicap, he was thereafter allowed to exceed that weight class by as much poundage as he couuld put on during the season. It was possible for a boy to qualify for, let us say, the 120 class and, if he was growing rapidly and had a marked tendency to fat, actually enter meets weighing 130 or more. And since it was potentially possible for all boys to greatly exceed their assigned weight classes, there was no real incentive a coach could offer his wrestlers to keep them in good trim, free of useless fat.

Ekfelt System Improved

When the Southwestern Association adopted the Ekfelt system, we eliminated this major criticism by one simple revision, or, more correctly, addition: To each weight division, we added a top limit, or "stopper," of three pounds which no boy could exceed after being assigned to his weight bracket. In other words, after a boy weighs in on weigh-in day, takes his handicap, and thus qualifies for a specific bracket, he must keep his actual body weight within three pounds above that bracket.

Of course, with this regulation we must continue pre-meet weigh-ins as before, and when a contestant's weight exceeds the three-pound "stopper," he still has the privilege of sweating off the excess. But that can hardly be the task that it once was, because, it must be remembered, the excess is at the *top* of the boy's *normal* body weight. It is not weight which has resisted five miserable days of harsh dieting.

I am convinced that our version of the Ekfelt system compels most wrestlers to compete at very near their normal body weights, with very few exceptions. It is inconceivable that enough boys on any one team would be able to buck their handicaps by enough weight loss to qualify at two brackets below their normal weights and appreciably affect the outcome of any meet or tournament.

The following is a sampling of the actual body weights recorded in four weight divisions in our last SWASB tournament. I believe they clearly indicate that the majority of the boys competed in weight classes comparable to their normal weights—a heretofore unprecedented occurrence in any tournament I have witnessed.

120 class
(top limit, 123 pounds)

119
120½
119
118
122½

133 class
(limit, 136 pounds)

127
130½
134
130½
131½

138 class
(limit, 141 pounds)

138
139
137
139½
139

145 class
(limit, 148 pounds)

144
145
141½
145
134

Of the twenty boys listed, note that only *one*—the 122½-pounder under the 120 class—was pushing the three-pound overweight limit. Is it not the usual thing to find most boys at tournament weigh-ins to be at the very limit of each weight allowance or, at best, only a few ounces under?

Another thing: How many times has a crowd of boys arrived at a school for a tournament and actually sat down at the dinner tables the evening *before* weigh-in and put away food the way nature intended growing boys to do? Old tournament hands present at the Tennessee School for the Blind, where our 1959 tournament was held, were astonished to see that very thing happen.

It is true that the Ekfelt system is a compromise. It does not eliminate weight reduction altogether. But it restricts *excessive* weight loss to *one time* each season, instead of the number of times equal to the number of meets a school engages in. And this one excessive weight loss is not necessarily to the boy's advantage.

Normal Growth Allowed

The Ekfelt system allows the boys to grow normally throughout the season, since they have the leeway of their handicap plus the overweight limit of their weight brackets. Finally, it will irrevocably place the responsibility for winning where it rightfully belongs—upon wrestling ability.

I am certain that a two-season tryout of our version of the Ekfelt plan will convince most coaches of its worth. There are "bugs" in it to be deleted by further revision, particularly regarding the matter of rapid growth among boys in the lower brackets. But it is a far cry beyond the evil of week-by-week starvation diets. And of course those schools which adopt the system will still feel the need to "pull weight" whenever they wrestle schools still employing the old starvation method. But this is not a valid argument for rejecting the Ekfelt plan. It is an argument for persuading others to employ it.

America's schools for the blind are not only known but renowned among wrestling authorities for their avid support of amateur wrestling. If we unite in protest of drastic weight reduction, by adoption of the Ekfelt system (pending the appearance of a better one), we could make our voice heard by the rulemakers and officials of athletic associations. We could prove, on a nation-wide basis, that wrestling can be a splendid, hotly competitive sport without living up to the shameful title" starvation sport."

Helpers in the Kindergarten

By Erdene Miller, Teacher

Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind

"The first day of school." Do these words mean a new world of magic or of apprehension in the thoughts of the blind child? It depends to a great extent upon the understanding of the needs and the limitations of the child as an individual and upon the ability of the teacher to help that child to feel at ease and to be happy

and assured of security from the very beginning.

All teaching methods must be very simple and on the child's interest level. These are best directed and learned through play and games for the young child.

One of the best "get acquainted" responses is received from a new group of children in a natural, positive performance when the teacher says, "I can shake my hands real, real hard." This may be changed to the game of shake one hand, clap my hands, shake my head, or jump up and down. These are things which each child feels confident that he is capable of doing, and there is no competition to limit that confidence which he has in himself. One, two, or three will begin; others will gradually join these. In a short time, with an occasional exception, every child in the class will be laughing and shaking.

Names and voices are new sounds to the young blind child also. The game we call "Little Sir Echo" enables a teacher to cope with this situation rather successfully. The teacher sings each child's name and the child in turn sings, "Here I am." Soon they are singing each others' names. This is great fun for them. At first, in several instances, there is no tune—just words.

All children, especially the blind, it seems to me, enjoy the game "Who is knocking at my door?" One child sits in a chair with his back to the others. He is visited by another child who knocks on the back of the chair saying, "I am knocking on your door." The child in the chair guesses the name of the one who has come to visit by his voice. The children take turns sitting in the chair.

These two games, while affording pleasure, alert the sense of hearing to listening attentively in a fun way of learning and of associating names with the least difficulty.

It is always a pleasure to have a child in class who has had training in the use of good manners. Naturally the amenities of social behavior should be taught the blind child as early as possible. In our school we attempt to do this by correlating our teaching with "doing." The nourishment period during mid-morning affords an opportunity to teach and to set the right example for table manners. The younger children are served cartons of milk and cookies and are given vitamins. Different children are chosen each day to serve the cookies and milk on a tray and then to pass the vitamins in a shallow paper cup. Of course, the first requirement of everyone is that hands must be washed.

"Please" and "thank you" are familiar words in our vocabulary now, and we try to remember that food is served to a person from the left.

This also provides an opportune time to talk about many aspects of food which are eaten with the fingers or with a fork, the colors of the vegetables and how they grow, why we drink milk, etc.

Sometimes one child will "return thanks" for the food; however, this is often done in unison.

The most coveted "job" is to drive the garbage truck—a large, tin trash can pushed on a low chair—to collect the paper towels used as plates, the empty cartons and the paper covers of the sippers. Each child assumes the responsibility of closing his carton and dropping it with any debris at his place into the "garbage truck" and of leaving his portion of the table "spic and span."

Counting and its factual applications are taught by counting the number of children in class, the chairs and colored sticks, or any concrete objects, and by bouncing a large rubber ball a given number of times. The use of a large counting frame containing one hundred colored beads which are large enough to be handled and which can be moved across a wire, one at a time, is helpful, too. Many children who can do rote counting enter school, but

they have no conception of associating this counting with real objects or things.

After a child has had sufficient and many varied experiences in counting and has mastered the association of numbers with concrete objects, he begins simple addition by the combination of small numbers. Later he is taught subtraction. This is made as realistic and as comprehensive as possible by association, by stories, and by the use of tangible materials. We play "going to the grocery store" to purchase various articles or items. The store may be a table, toy box, or the shelves. At different times various materials such as wooden blocks, beads, colored sticks, etc., are used. Two apples, or any specified objects, are bought. These are placed on the table on the right side of the child; two oranges are then bought and placed on the left. How many pieces of fruit were bought? Some children must bring them together to comprehend that the two on the right added to the two on the left make four; the majority do not.

What is a coat? A maze of sleeves, collar, pockets, armholes, buttons, and buttonholes. A very complicated article to get into or to hang so that it will "stay put." This is a real problem in the eyes of a blind or partially sighted child. Our game, "Hide the Rabbit," has eliminated much of the labor put forth and the frustration shown by most children while trying to place a coat on the hanger and to place the hanger on a rod. They learn to use a coat hanger as easily as hanging wraps on a hook.

The coat is placed with lining side up and with collar at top, on a table. A fur or velvet collar, or some other distinguishing feature makes this much simpler. The two "rabbit holes"—armholes—where the rabbits go into their houses are found. One "arm" of the hanger is a rabbit; the other "arm" is another. The hook must be above the collar. This places the rabbits practically in front of their respective homes. Pull one side of the coat "way over" to keep the rabbit from slipping away. Then cover the rabbit on the other side. Extra heavy coats may be buttoned at the neck, but coats pulled far eonugh over the hanger very seldom fall off. The children then hang the hooks over an iron coat rod for the rabbits to sleep while the children play.

Blindness requires much time in pre-readiness preparation for Braille reading and writing. Since Braille is the medium, or tool, for learning to read and write, it is essential to give every child a good foundation in Braille. Six round discs which are one foot in circumference and which are painted white in order that the child with impaired vision can detect them, are used in the first game for teaching the fundamentals of Braille. Three of these are placed on the floor on the right side and three on the left, corresponding to the cells of a guide. In the child's imagination, they are houses numbered one through six. A child calls a number and another child taps his toe on the disc he thinks or knows is the number. If he is correct, he goes in—jumps on the disc with both feet. This is noisy but lots of fun, and how they do enjoy it. The significance of this game is to acquaint the child with the order and position of the Braille dots and cells used later.

The next step in the form of a game utilizes a six-cup muffin pan, each cup a pen numbered one to six and the home of six fat little pigs—blocks. The wolf with the long bushy tail and long white teeth tries to catch a little pig while he is out playing. The person representing the wolf says, "I am going to catch the little pig who lives in pen 2, (4 or any number to 6)." He then gets to take the block of any child who does not get it into the right numbered pen.

Later, the blocks are called dots. Each has a partner, and they march side by side like soldiers. Dot 1 and 4 are partners

at the top; dots 2 and 5, partners in the middle or center; and dots 3 and 6, partners at the bottom. This game affords an opportunity for accuracy and a preparation for Braille writing later; it also reduces fumbling. Through this media it is fun to progress to the idea that dot 1 and dot 4 (blocks) make c, dots 1, 3, 4 and 6 make x, etc. Thus, the child learns the dots that make the letters of the alphabet with little tedium. We follow the use of the muffin pans with a large block having six holes into which large pegs fit; medium sized peg boards, and finally regular sized peg boards, accomplishing many purposes and keeping foremost in mind readiness for the Braille guide, writing, or reading Braille.

Two days before Christmas, plain milk instead of chocolate milk was brought during the nourishment period. One partially sighted child spied it immediately and began pushing his glass away from him exclaiming, "I don't like white milk." The idea became rampant and almost everyone began pushing his milk back. "That is Christmas milk and white like the snow," I said. Little hands began pulling it back, and every drop of milk was drunk without a murmur. In working with young children never underestimate the amazing results that the power of suggestion and praise often produce.

The success and results of a good program of guidance and instruction will show in the final appraisal of the child in the progress he makes socially, emotionally and mentally and especially in his happy attitude toward the Kindergarten and the Primary Grades.

Summer 1960 Courses on Education of the Blind

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee

June 14-July 16—First term
July 18-August 19—Second term
} Full summer sequence of courses for teachers of blind children in two sessions

August 22-September 2—Intersession

July 5-29—**Workshop** on Potentialities and Problems of Severely Disturbed Blind Children—Coordinator: Miss Pauline M. Moor, Program Specialist in Education, American Foundation for the Blind, 15 West 16th Street, New York 11, New York. (A limited number of $150 scholarships for this workshop are available, for which application should be made to Miss Moor at the above address.)

August 22-September 2—**Workshop** on Educational Programs for Exceptional Children.

For further information on all courses and workshop, write: Mr. S. C. Ashcroft, Assistant Professor of Education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville 5, Tennessee.

San Francisco State College, San Francisco, California

June 20-24—**Workshop** on Education of the Visually Handicapped in Secondary Schools.

June 27-August 5—Full sequence of courses available to teachers of blind children.

August 8-26—Specialized **Workshop** on Orientation and Mobility for Blind Children. This course is offered with the financial support and professional cooperation of the American Foundation for the blind.

For further information, write: Mr. Robert A. Bowers, Assistant Professor of Education, San Francisco State College, 1600 Holloway Avenue, San Francisco 27, California.

Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York

July 5-August12—Full sequence of courses available to teachers of blind children.

July 11-22—Specialized **Workshop** in Guidance and Counseling for Adolescent Blind Children.

July 25-August 4—Advanced **Workshop** in Educational Guidance and Counselling for Partially Seeing Children—The Social, Educational and Vocational Aspects.

For further information, write: Mrs. Ferne K. Root, Coordinator, Center for the Development of Blind Children, Syracuse University, School of Education, 805 South Crouse Avenue, Syracuse 10, New York.

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

June 13-July 13—A full sequence of courses available to teachers of blind children.

For further information, write: Miss Jeanne R. Kenmore, Instructor of Educational Psychology, University of Minnesota, 15-A Pattee Hall, Minneapolis 14, Minnesota.

Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

June 17-August 1—Three courses only: Survey on Education of Exceptional Children; Methods and Procedures in Educating the Partially Seeing Child; Pathology of the Organs of Vision.

For further information, write: Department of Special Education and Vocational Rehabilitation, Wayne State University, Detroit 2, Michigan.

University of Wisconsin—State Department of Public Instruction, Bureau for Handicapped Children—Wisconsin School for the Visually Handicapped, Janesville, Wisconsin.

July 18-August 12—**Workshop** at Wisconsin School for the Visually Handicapped, with demonstration class and special emphasis on the primary and elementary level of education of the blind child.

Scholarships

A limited number of scholarships are available from the following:

American Association of Instructors of the Blind, 2363 South Spring Avenue, St. Louis 10, Missouri

Scholarships for training of personnel for schools for the blind.

American Foundation for the Blind, 15 West 16th Street, New York 11, New York
All applications should be sent in as soon as possible with a deadline of April 15th.

New York Institute for the Education of the Blind, 999 Pelham Parkway, New York 69, New York

Graduate scholarships and teaching fellowships for training in the field of the visually handicapped.

Dates to Remember

1960

March 2-5—Midwest Administrators Workshop on Houseparents, Iowa Center for Continuation Study, State University of Iowa, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. (Sponsored by State University of Iowa, in cooperation with the AAIB and the American Foundation for the Blind).

April 19-23 Council for Exceptional Children, International Conference, Hotel Biltmore, Los Angeles, California.

June 26-30—American Association of Instructors of the Blind, 45th Biennial Convention, Tennessee School for the Blind, Nashville, Tennessee.

June 26-July 3—National Education Association, Annual Convention, Los Angeles, California.

August 28-September 2—American Association of Workers for the Blind, 34th Convention, Hotel Saxony, Miami Beach, Florida.

Results of a Two-Year Language Study

By Cecelia Tabler, Teacher
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In March of 1957, the STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST, FORM J, was given to pupils in Grades IV through X at the Missouri School for the Blind. The results of this test confirmed our belief that our pupils were having more trouble in the language area than in any other subject. The retardation appeared progressive—nothing which the youngsters would outgrow.

Since test scores, no matter how valid they may appear to be, are never the final answer, we carried our examination of available data further in an attempt to discover whether all of our pupils were academically retarded, what relationship might exist between intelligence and language achievement, and whether there were any obvious clues which might explain our problem. We studied the variation in ages, intelligence and levels of reading within each group or class, compared the achievement of pupils reading Braille with those who read large type, and examined the cumulative records of each pupil.

Some of the results were significant; others were interesting but of no diagnostic value. We found an intelligence span of as much as 85 points within one group, an 8½ year range in language achievement within another section, intellectually gifted pupils who were badly retarded, and slow-learners who were over-achieving. In some groups, children who read Braille scored several points higher than pupils who read large type; in other groups this situation was reversed. The reading medium was discounted as a factor affecting group scores but was very important when considering the problems of individuals, since a number of the children involved were new to our school and were just learning to read Braille, or reading per se.

We realized that our problems were in no way unique either for teachers of seeing or non-seeing children. Beause it was our problem, it seemed rather special. Unfortunately, there was no "miracle drug" for what ailed us. Every school has just so many classrooms, a given number of teachers, and a limited amount of time, money, and available material and human resources. To repeat the old and often misused maxim, "We must take the children where we find them," would be a bit glib if it were to be used as an excuse, to rationalize, or to pass the proverbial "buck." Obviously, we'd been "taking" them for years. Now, we decided, was an excellent time to find out WHERE we had taken them, and just who was taking whom, and why, and how.

We couldn't wreck the whole school's schedule, manufacture new, "perfect" textbooks or teachers, find a few extra hours in each day, or a few thousand dollars lying around loose. We could, however, reorganize our classes, regroup our pupils in basic subject matter areas, and we could adapt our curriculum in a way which would be of more value to more children.

Before any changes affecting either pupils or curriculum took place, both the children and their parents were told what we hoped to do, why we felt it would be of benefit to the pupils, and how we planned to carry out our two-year study, or experiment, in language arts. There was

no "sugar coating." The parents continued to receive regular reports throughout the period concerning their own child's progress and about his section's work. The importance of this public relations program cannot be ignored, nor the value of parental support which it inspired.

The pupils at the junior high level were assigned to sections which were highly flexible and in which we felt the particular pupil could achieve the most possible personal progress and success. Any child could be assigned to any group or reassigned at any time. During the first year the pupils were graded upon their progress, relative to their ability, and only three grades were given—"H" for honors, "S" for satisfactory, and "U" for unsatisfactory. In the second year of the study, we felt that we could return to the traditional grading system of the pupils in relation to their section. Some pupils who were reading below the third grade reading level were not placed in language arts classes but were given remedial reading or beginning Braille reading help for an hour each day. Throughout the program, pupils received credit at the grade level at which they would have been under the old system. Our purpose was not to retain or double promote anyone, but to help each pupil make the maximum amount of personal growth.

During the school year of 1957-58, the students were divided into three groups: Remedial, Regular, and Accelerated. Only seventh and eighth grade pupils participated. In 1958-59, regrouping seemed wise and the sections were unnamed. They consisted of one group of eighth and ninth graders who were working at a fifth grade language level, one class which was composed of seventh graders working slightly below seventh grade level, and a third section of accelerated seventh graders, average and superior eighth graders, and several ninth graders who needed special help. Three ninth graders were assigned to a high school English class of upper classmen. We do not claim that our way is either best or the only way to cope with the matter; it was the best way we knew how, and we feel that it has been successful in our own situation.

Before any changes were made which affected the pupils, we felt it necessary to set up objectives which were practical, suitable, possible, and educationally sound. Too many "goals" established on paper remain on paper because they do not consider the needs of specific children, the total situation, or the available resources. Others are so vague, ambiguous, or hypothetical that they smother in a smog of "pretty" words. Ours may have lacked a certain polish, but they were workable and worthwhile. Some of the ultimate objectives included: (1) Help in eliminating the progressive retardation in the language area; (2) Providing a program which would meet the personal needs of as many as our pupils as possible; and (3) Providing a learning environment and presenting the type of material and learning experiences which would encourage each pupil to do his best.

Some specific goals for the various groups included: (1) Helping the retarded pupils to develop simple written vocabularies, adequate to their personal communicative needs in writing letters, preparing assignments, doing written class work, etc.; (2) Helping all pupils to develop the ability to write clear, complete sentences (no matter how simple the content or style) which make use of an acceptable standard of English usage, capitalization, punctuation, spelling, form, etc.; (3) Helping all pupils to become familiar with, and to use, the basic language concepts of: define, describe, discuss, compare, contrast, explain, use, give an example of, etc.; (4) Helping all pupils to develop the language-oriented study skills used in other areas of learning; and (5) Helping the gifted pupils to make the best use of their

superior ability by providing the quality and the quantity of subject matter which was on their interest and ability level and by encouraging them to assume more responsibility for their own success through allowing them greater freedom of choice.

The education of a child is a long-term investment; although the two-year period is ended it is not possible to evaluate the potential worth of the program. A few fairly objective results may be reported, however, which suggest that the experiment has achieved some measure of success in attaining its goals.

In March of 1959, FORM K of THE STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST was given to the pupils. The tables below give a breakdown of the results of both the 1957 and the 1959 scores on the language section. Of the twenty-six pupils, all but the seventh graders took part in the entire two-year program. The results of only one means of evaluation are never valid, and these are presented for whatever interest they may have for the reader—not as "proof" of anything. The results of the Stanford Achievement Test indicate a median growth of three years and two months—or a one year and two months growth in excess of the two years normally to be expected of pupils in a two-year period. Intelligence quotients are given in the table only to indicate that it was not only the gifted nor only the retarded child who profited from the program, and as evidence that the "typical" pupil did not suffer from any lack of consideration. It should be noted that the three sections (I, III, and IV) which were made up of pupils who, with two exceptions, had participated in the full two-year period, made more growth than did the pupils in section II which was composed of seventh graders who had been in a homogeneous group for only one year. All puplis were taught by the same teacher throughout the two-year period.

One other aspect of this experiment must be considered. If the study is of any significance, it may be in that it tends to refute certain arguments regarding the "practicality," or the expense involved—arguments which are used as excuses rather than reasons whenever the discussion of an adaptation of curriculum arises. In the past two years of our experiment, no

TABLE I

COMPARISON OF PROGRESS MADE IN FOUR SECTIONS PARTICIPATING IN THE TWO-YEAR LANGUAGE STUDY AT THE MISSOURI SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND

SECTIONS	I	II *	III	IV
MEDIAN ACHIEVEMENT 1957	3.3	5.0	6.4	7.6
MEDIAN ACHIEVEMENT 1959	7.2	7.3	9.6	11.1
MEDIAN GROWTH	3.9	2.3	3.2	3.5

Section I. 7 pupils, 4 Braille, 3 print, working at 5-6th grade level.
Section II. 6 pupils, 3 Braille, 3 print, working at 6-7th grade level.
Section III. 10 pupils, 8 braille, 2 print, working at 8-9th grade level.
Section IV. 3 pupils, 2 Braille, 1 print, working at 10-11th grade level.
*These pupils have been in the study group only one of the two years.

additional money was spent, no new texts bought, no teachers added, no extra space used, nor was it necessary to reduce the class load of the teacher involved. The changes were those in assigning pupils to sections adapted to their level of achievement, and in the adaptation of material and methods used by the teacher. We feel that this has been a valuable experiment and experience for both the pupils and the teacher involved.

TABLE II

RESULTS OF A TWO-YEAR STUDY AT THE MISSOURI SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND IN THE FIELD OF LANGAUGE ARTS BASED UPON THE SCORES OF THE STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TESTS, LANGUAGE SECTION, FORMS J AND K

GRADE	BRAILLE OR PRINT	I.Q.	1957 SCORE J	1959 SCORE K	GROWTH Y. M.	RE: PRESENT LEVEL RETARDED	ADVANCED
7	B.	103	5.8	7.9	2.1		.3
7	B.	91	5.3	8.2	2.9		.6
7	B.	106	2.6	5.0	2.4	2.6	
7	B.	134	3.4	11.4	8.0		3.8
7	B.	145	9.1	11.3	2.2		3.7
7	P.	107	4.0	6.8	2.8	.8	
7	P.	114	5.8	6.7	.9	.9	
7	P.	102	4.8	8.3	3.5		.7
8	B.	85	3.3	10.6	7.3		2.6
8	B.	80	6.4	9.6	3.2		1.0
8	B.	120	1.9	6.9	5.0	1.5	
8	B.	109	7.0	11.8	4.8		3.2
8	B.	74	5.5	7.2	1.7	1.4	
8	B.	139	5.1	11.0	5.9		2.4
8	P.	71	2.6	7.2	4.6	1.4	
8	P.	91	0.0	4.9	4.9	3.5	
8	P.	94	6.5	6.2	none	2.4	
9	B.	132	7.5	11.4	3.9		1.8
9	B.	67	4.0	8.0	4.0	1.6	
9	B.	92	4.0	7.2	3.2	2.4	
9	B.	126	5.5	10.6	5.3		1.2
9	B.	68	8.0	7.6	none	2.0	
9	B.	144	9.6	12.3	2.7		2.7
9	P.	94	5.8	8.1	2.3	1.5	
9	P.	131	9.9	11.3	1.4		1.7
9	P.	98	6.9	7.3	.4	2.3	

COMPOSITION OF THE GROUP PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY

11 girls, 15 boys

17 Braille, 9 print

8 seventh graders, 8 eighth graders, 9 ninth graders

Average pupil growth, 3 years, 3 months

Median pupil growth, 3 years, 2 months

Assignment in Africa

By Geoffrey E. Salisbury

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During the last seven years I have had the good fortune to be connected with some most interesting pioneer work amongst blind Africans which is being sponsored by the Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind, a British organization based in London, and the local Governments, organizations and agencies for the blind. My particular work, that of starting up schools and training centers for the blind, has taken me over a wide area, which includes Rhodesia, Nyasaland, and Tanganyika, where blindness, despite the work of Government hospitals and missions, still presents a very real problem.

Little did I appreciate the scope and real nature of my work when, on a bitterly cold and foggy day, I left England with my wife for a life that was to be spent living and working amongst some really primitive people where, despite the spread of schools and modern life, superstition and ignorance are still present in many lives. On looking back to those early days, I often wonder that, with our lack of knowledge of customs, tradition, and local languages, any of our work took root at all.

For countless generations the lot of the blind in most parts of Central and Eastern Africa has, indeed, been a tragic one. There are one or two exceptions to this state of affairs. For example, there is, in Northern Rhodesia, a tribe where, according to ancient custom, bad luck will befall you if you fail to help a blind man, but usually the lot of the blind is hard. In many tribes, blindness is regarded as a disgrace and the blind are openly despised and are frequently referred to as "the dead men who walk." As a result, the majority of the blind live a life of misery and squalor. They have no part in community life, they are social outcasts in many villages, and life for them is one of stagnation which physically and mentally makes them very difficult people to deal with. It is still "fair game" in some regions to watch a blind person fall into a hole or allow some other avoidable misadventure to occur to him and, consequently, it is not surprising that many African blind (not all by any means) are very bitter people at the hands of such treatment. But the majority of Africans are today merely indifferent towards the blind. One of the most important tasks that we are trying to do in Africa today is to convince the majority of Africans that the blind are trainable and that they are part and parcel of the community and have a right to take their place in society side by side with those who can see. At present throughout Africa we are faced with thousands of blind people who are afflicted physically, but not mentally, who through ignorance and custom are condemned to a hopeless and frustrated life. It is true that already the impact of education is making itself felt in many areas, but it is only by sending out from training schools for the blind confident and capable young people that any real impression can be made.

It is not generally realized that the number of blind in some areas of Africa is quite astounding. For example, in West Africa alone there are believed to be at least 300,000 people who are blind. Fortunately, in Central and East Africa the situation is a little brighter, but in some places, particularly along the shores of Lake Mweru and in the Luapula Valley

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area, some quite unpleasant facts have emerged.

Quite by chance, I decided when passing through a group of small villages on the shores of Lake Mweru to do a quick local check on the incidence of blindness. I did this with the cooperation of the local Chief and his headmen. You can well imagine my surprise when, at the end of the day, we had found 31 children between the ages of three and sixteen in five small villages. Today a small school for the blind looks after these children. It is an appalling thought to consider that a *day school* for blind children is operating in such a small area. Another hundred miles west a larger school serves the Village of Chief Kasembe, a Paramount Chief, whose forebearers have been vividly described in Livingstone's accounts of his explorations in this area. There are two mission blind schools as well that have been doing some really remarkable work. The British Government and public, apart from providing funds, and in most cases buildings for these schools, have established a Central Training School for the Blind where not only children, but teachers and adolescents can be trained. My first task in Africa was to start this establishment in Northern Rhodesia and a most interesting task it proved. Unlike work that followed in another area of Africa a few years later, the blind flocked to the school in such numbers that we had to turn quite a proportion away until sufficient African staff had been trained. We soon found that many of the new entrants had come, not with the idea of learning to help themselves, but to obtain free board and lodging. The idea that a blind person could attain reasonable independence was completely foreign to most of the young people who joined the school, and frankly they did not believe that such a thing was possible.

When the blind first came to us we told them that although we could do nothing about the sight they had already lost, we could, if they were prepared to cooperate with their teachers, do a lot towards helping them fit into their village life in a purposeful and active manner. The whole object of our training at this Centre and at other schools, whether we are dealing with children or adults, is directed towards helping them fit into ordinary village life in an independent way so that they will be accepted by their fellow-villagers and regain their self-respect. We base our training on local needs, motivation, self-discipline, and the teaching of desirable habits. We aim to provide our children particularly with a fund of knowledge that will always be useful to them. We teach Braille in the schools although we realize that it is not always practicable for the youngster to follow it up, but one day we hope that Braille will become more widespread in its use. The last two years of school life are devoted largely to vocational needs such as crafts and agriculture because we feel that if a blind man can grow his own food and make a little money from simple skills, such as net-making, basketry and even carpentry, he will at any rate be able to fend for himself. This policy has been followed with success at adolescent training centres that we established in Tanganyika and Nyasaland, and there is every hope that it will prove to be the making of thousands of men and women who, at present, are through no fault of their own idle, helpless people.

At our schools and adult centres the blind are taught to cook, wash their own clothes, to gather firewood, and to take part in all the odd jobs that make up African village life. They play games, they earn a small amount of pocket money, and frequently they travel with their friends a considerable distance to visit the neighbouring villages. With all this has come a mellowing in the attitude of many communities near these schools. But in remoter areas, and sometimes even in the modern townships where the more sophis-

ticated Africans live, there is still too often a stigma attached to blindness, that only hard work and time will eliminate. It can be a heart-breaking experience to see keen, hard-working blind youths who are, in some respects, more skilled and intelligent than many of their more educated brothers and sisters, rebuffed and shamed before they have had a chance to make good.

To help blind adolescents to settle into their villages we generally send out our own trained social workers or teachers who arrange for them to have materials and some land, and check any tools that have been loaned by the Training Centre to them. The social worker deals with any problems that may be worrying the new farmer-craftsman and explains to relatives and the local headman how they can best help the boy.

In Tanganyika and Nyasaland my work dealt specifically with Adult Training. We established two experimental training units, one in each territory operating, by the way, in entirely different surroundings and with very different types of people. The object of these pilot schemes was to provide, at a reasonably economic rate, a concentrated practical training within the space of a year. Africans who had been blind for years and were living in the depths of squalor were persuaded with considerable difficulty (it took six months in Tanganyika to recruit 25 men) to come for training. Within the first few weeks we worked a long day that concentrated around teaching desirable habits (so that the hygiene of the Centre was not endangered), motivation, simple craftwork, and school domestic duties. It was more a time of initial training and general assessment rather than a detailed vocational program so that we could get to know the trainees. We studied carefully their reactions to a variety of situations; we questioned them about their likes and dislikes, their families, village environment, personal ambitions (if they had any); and we amassed a reasonable case history on each man. At the end of the initial training period which usually took about six weeks, according to individual progress, each trainee was given a program to follow which lasted sometimes up to ten hours a day. The program was considered by us to best meet his home and village needs. For example, one man would concentrate on carpentry, gardening, and basketry; another would go in for animal husbandry, store-keeping, and net-making. During the course, they learned to make and repair their own tools, to make kraals for cattle, and to build a simple hut for themselves. Our aim was to make them as independent as possible.

I think if enthusiasm and genuine hard work are any criteria, we may modestly claim to have been reasonably sucessful. Our success was due, I am sure, in trying to provide the trainee with something he wanted to do because he saw a reasonable future for himself and his family if he could attain a reasonable amount of skill in it. I think, as well, it was due to a concentrated program that gave him little time to reflect on his own misfortunes. It was not at all unusual to see trainees at their work in their own spare time simply because they enjoyed what they were doing. In both Tanganyika and Nyasaland our centres reached this stage of enthusiasm in quite a short time and maintained it throughout the course. At both centres we have had many distinguished visitors including in Tanganyika the United Nations Trusteeship delegation who, among other things, were treated to a concert by the school band and a football match. This work in training centres and schools could not proceed without the help and ability of trained African staff. Staff recruitment is our big difficulty in this field of work. At present there is not much enthusiasm for working amongst the blind largely because there are so many other opportunities open to the really well-educated man of integrity and character

that we are interested in training. In some areas, my teachers told me, it is still considered socially degrading to work with blind people.

I am glad to say that I have been particularly lucky in securing, after a considerable number of failures, two or three men of character, who though lacking much in practical ability, have by sheer personality and keenness encouraged the blind (and some other members of the staff) to attain standards of work and attitudes that are well appreciated today by many Africans. If, in our drive against the stagnating effects of blindness, such schemes could have the services of men of the same calibre, I think the appalling apathy and indifference of many Africans towards their blind would eventually give way to more constructive thinking.

We have, of course, had our failures — men who could not or would not exert themselves to reach the standards we required, but they have been remarkably few considering that most of the trainees, particularly in Tanganyika, were drawn from some of the most primitive parts of Africa. This is the most encouraging part of our work, but the crucial test is the ability of these men to resettle successfully in their villages. Frankly, I do not think our ultimate results in the early stages will be very encouraging. It is asking a lot, even with the helping hand of a first-rate social worker, for a blind youngster to make good in the undisciplined and lazy atmosphere of a village which may not even "accept" him. Some men I know will succeed because they have the tenacity and courage to make good. My personal opinion is that, for the time being, we must be very well satisfied if only 50 to 60% of our trainees make the grade as reasonably independent and skilled people.

Some visitors who generally have little knowledge about Africa often comment how insignificant our efforts are compared with the immense problem facing us. Probably they are right, but they fail to appreciate that within living memory, the Africa with which many of us are familiar has changed from one of bitter tribal warfare, slavery, disease, mass starvation and the systematic extermination of the weak, to one of security and kindlier sentiments. It is true that the malignant influence of the African witch doctor still holds sway in many areas, even amongst educated men and women, but only time will see the disappearance of his revolting rites.

We realise that the answer to training blind children cannot be found by only establishing schools for the blind. If we followed this policy it would mean the erection of thousands of schools for the blind in Africa alone. We believe that the answer to this problem may well lie in the system of integrating blind children into ordinary schools — that is the precise reason for my visit to the United States. If this scheme works, its implications would indeed be wider and more far-reaching than anything we have seen in backward areas for a very long time. It would be economical. We would not have to uproot the child from his family and village to send him to a training school in an area, perhaps, where they may speak different languages and have different customs. Most promising of all, it would be an excellent way to educate the African in the proper treatment and potentialities of the blind. The difficulties facing us are obvious; so maybe that is one good reason for tackling them now.

A Study of Pictures for Large Type Textbooks

By Carson Y. Nolan, Ph.D.

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Introduction

A recurring problem in the production of large type books is that of picture legibility. This is primarily the result of attempts to reproduce colored pictures in black and white through the photo-offset process. It is obvious that printing pictures in color would avoid this problem; however, inclusion of colored pictures would greatly increase the present cost of large type texts.

Results of attempts to reproduce an originally multicolored picture in black and white range from pictures where clearness of contour and distinctiveness of figure-ground relationships are slightly diminished, to those where the whole picture appears one area of almost equally dark grays. Among factors that contribute to this are: Screens used in photography may act as filters; photographic films are not equally sensitive over the range of the color spectrum; and different hues in pictures may be of equal brightness and appear as equal shades of gray when reproduced by this method.

Resulting reduction of picture legibility can cause difficulty for those with normal sight. For the visually handicapped, it imposes an overwhelming obstacle. The purpose of this paper is to describe the development and evaluation of a method of reproducing colored illustrations legibly in black and white.

The Method for Reproducing Pictures

The goal was to find a means of reproducing, at a relatively low cost, a legible picture which would retain many of the aesthetic qualities of the original illustration. Tracing the original drawings seemed to be a feasible means of reaching this goal. Three general rules were observed in order to increase picture legibility: (1) Contour was emphasized as a cue to form perception, (2) figure-ground relationships were emphasized where possible, and (3) extraneous detail or clutter was omitted from pictures where possible.

Adoption of these rules still permitted considerable latitude in the manner in which the pictures were represented. A variable of interest was the amount of black to white or amount of shading of figures in a picture. Preliminary drawings showed that at least four combinations of black and white could be readily achieved.

Procedure for Evaluation of Pictures

Five separate pictures were studied, each presented in these five different ways: *Type 1*, a simple line drawing; *Type 2*, a line drawing with areas blacked in for contrast; *Type 3*, a line drawing with blacked areas and light shading; *Type 4*, a line drawing with blacked areas and heavy shading; and *Type 5*, a photo-offset print. The method of pair-comparison[2] was used to determine which of the five types of pictures was most legible for large type readers. For this method, each type for each picture was paired with every other type. Children were required to judge each pair of pictures and indicate which one they could see better.

From five types for each picture, ten possible pairs can be made. Since there were five pictures, each child was required to judge fifty pairs of stimuli. The pic-

tures were presented in a constant order, with each type appearing equally often on the right and on the left to control space error. Each pair of stimuli was mounted on an 18 x 12 inch card in order to facilitate presentation.

The group making the judgments consisted of 40 children (28 boys, 12 girls) from the Kentucky and Tennessee Schools for the Blind. All were large type readers. They ranged in age from 11-20 years and in grade from 5-10. Median age was 14 years, 7 months and median grade was 7. Visual acuity in the better corrected eye ranged from 20/50 to 10/200. Twenty-eight of the group (70%) were classed as legally blind.

Results

The comparative legibilities for each type presentation of all five pictures are given in Table 1. Also given are the mean legibilities for each type of each picture. Inspection of these means shows that presentation Type 2 (a line drawing with areas blacked for contrast) was judged most legible for all pictures. It was judged more legible than the other types approximately 75% of the time.

The legibility relationships for the five types of each picture and among pictures themselves are clearly expressed in Table 2. Here the results of the judgments of the 40 children for each picture have been converted into equal-interval scales according to the method described by Guilford (1, p. 555-65). These scales meet the necessary requirements for internal consistency. Since these scales are psychological scales and not physical scales. they have no zero point. Therefore, absolute statements such as "this picture is not legible" or "this picture has complete legibility" cannot be made. However, the scales do support relative statements as in the case of Picture A: "Type 4 is almost twice as legible as

TABLE 1

Comparative Legibilities for Each Type of Presentation for Five Pictures
Proportion of Times Each Type Judged More Legible. (Read down)

Picture A

Less Legible	More Legible: Type 1	2	3	4	5
1		.88	.68	.65	.25
2	.13		.40	.40	.12
3	.32	.60		.25	.12
4	.35	.60	.75		.10
5	.75	.88	.88	.90	
Means	.39	.74	.68	.55	.15

Picture B

Less Legible	More Legible: Type 1	2	3	4	5
1		.78	.75	.58	.38
2	.22		.32	.20	.15
3	.25	.68		.38	.15
4	.42	.80	.62		.28
5	.62	.85	.85	.72	
Means	.38	.78	.64	.41	.24

Picture C

Less Legible	More Legible: 1	2	3	4	5
1		.75	.65	.50	.18
2	.25		.20	.22	.18
3	.35	.80		.45	.08
4	.50	.78	.55		.12
5	.82	.82	.92	.88	
Means	.48	.79	.58	.51	.14

Picture D

Less Legible	More Legible: 1	2	3	4	5
1		.80	.62	.50	.32
2	.20		.25	.32	.15
3	.38	.75		.27	.28
4	.50	.68	.72		.23
5	.68	.85	.72	.78	
Means	.48	.75	.58	.47	.24

Picture E

Less Legible	More Legible: 1	2	3	4	5
1		.85	.88	.58	.25
2	.15		.40	.25	.15
3	.12	.60		.30	.20
4	.42	.75	.70		.13
5	.75	.85	.80	.88	
Means	.36	.76	.69	.50	.18

Type 1 when both are compared with Type 5;" or "differences in legibility between Types 4 & 1 are almost as great as between Types 1 & 5."

Table 2 again shows the superiority of Type 2 presentations. It is also apparent in this table that any type of traced picture is more legible than its photo-offset counterpart (Type 5). The identical rank order of types for each picture in legibility is indicative of near perfect reliability for these findings. Variation in the ranges or extent of differences in legibility among pictures suggests that picture content or other factors influence the degree of legibility induced by any mode of presentation.

Summary

Using the method of pair-comparison, 40 visually handicapped children judged the relative legibility of five methods for reproducing textbook illustrations. A tracing consisting of a line drawing with areas blacked in for contrast was found more legible than three other types of tracings or the same picture reproduced through the photo-offset process.

TABLE 2

Legibility Scale Values for Each Type Presentation for Five Pictures

Picture	TYPE IN ORDER* OF LEGIBILITY 2	3	4	1	5
A	1.41	1.26	1.00	.59	.00
B	1.22	.91	.52	.34	.00
C	1.53	1.11	.95	.87	.00
D	1.17	.74	.51	.43	.00
E	1.34	1.19	.71	.40	.00

*The zero points of these scales were arbitrarily set at the scale value for the type having lowest legibility.

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'Open Windows' for the Blind

By Gertrude Samuels

The 1,150 blind students in this country's colleges and universities face a special problem in their search for an education: Will enough of them have textbooks to "read" in the years ahead? Some 600 of them have found an answer in the national non-profit agency called Recording for the Blind, Inc. Even now they are ordering their "textbooks" for the fall term, so that they will be able to start on time with their classes.

At R. F. B.'s headquarters at 121 East Fifty-eighth Street in Manhattan, volunteers, who include doctors, lawyers, scientists, actors, businessmen and housewives, read texts and other educational material onto tapes. These are later recorded on small plastic disks and supplied free of charge to blind students, and to blind adults seeking new careers through education. (A typical "voice" is that of Dan Hogan, a young actor just back from playing stock in Nassau, who spent more than two hours the other day reading "King Lear.")

Supported by gifts from individuals and foundations, the agency, which has fourteen branches throughout the country, starts from the premise that blind persons can become economically independent and enrich their lives through education.

On specific requests from blind students, it records such works as "Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus," "The Age of Ideology," "Ego Psychology and Dynamic Casework," "The Dialogues of Plato," "Textbook of Biophysical Chemistry" and the writings of Shakespeare and Einstein.

The agency supplements the work of the Library of Congress which supplies free "talking books" (chiefly recreational) and 16-r.p.m. play-back machines to the blind. The seven-inch discs often hold an hour's recording each, with perhaps twenty-five discs per book of 500 pages. Since its inception in 1951—originally to aid blinded war veterans seeking to con-

*Reprinted from *The New York Times* for July 5, 1959. Gertrude Samuels is a staff writer on the newspaper's Sunday Magazine. Arrangements were made for this reprint through Mr. Burnham Carter, National Director, Recording for the Blind, Inc., 121 East 58th Street, New York 22, N. Y.

tinue their education—R. F. B. has recorded some 4,500 titles.

But because of limited funds, the agency can serve only about half the number of blind students. As a spokesman of R. F. B. puts it: "I have always felt that if these remarkable people had the courage to seek an education or make new careers for themselves, the least we could do was to provide *all* of them with the books and educational materials that they need."

What does the agency's effort mean to blind students and scholars? Let the blind tell it themselves.

In downtown Manhattan, at a Western Electric Company telephone repair depot, Arthur Torgersen, a large, energetic man given to easy smiles, stands near a rack onto which he weaves together cables of different thicknesses and colors for a dial switchboard. The work requires meticulous attention, as shown by other repairmen working on similar racks near by; the only difference between them and Torgersen is that he has been blind since he was 9 years old. Now 34, Torgersen had to learn each cable's color and thickness from a "running sheet" that he transcribed into Braille, committed to memory and now knows by heart as he speeds his fingers confidently over the rack.

Once he had wanted to be a physiotherapist. He had been educated at the New York Institute for the Blind where he learned Braille, and later entered City College as a day student. But volunteer readers were hard to find ("All students have their own problems, you know"), and he also was told that his chosen career was closed to the blind.

Disillusioned, he dropped out of college, and for the next few years tried many jobs — spooling film, tuning pianos, managing a stationery store—all the while "consumed with the hope of finishing my education." Six years ago the Brooklyn Industrial Home for the Blind found him his present job, and he began to dream about a career in electrical engineering.

A year ago he took the first step toward making the dream come true. He heard about Recording for the Blind, and their offer to record texts. He visited the agency and was warmly encouraged to reenroll in college. Now, although he must travel for an hour by bus and subway after his 8-to-4:30 workday, Torgersen has been attending City College three nights a week, from 6 to 10 o'clock carrying subjects that will lead to a Bachelor of Science degree. It has made for long days for Torgersen, but so revived are his hopes and so highly developed his memory that he has even found time to tutor a student from Bogota in college algebra.

Torgersen's system of using the R. F .B. texts is typical for many blind students. Onto the discs, R. F. B. volunteers have read everything on the printed page, from page numbers (as guides to them and other readers) down to footnotes. At his home in Brooklyn, Torgersen takes notes by touch typing on a conventional typewriter as he plays back the "straight reading material"—Shakespeare, economics, government. (Torgersen finds the Braille typewriter too slow-moving for him.) Later he gets a volunteer reader to read the typed notes slowly back to him while he transcribes them by hand in Braille. These he will use in preparation for tests or for future references.

With more technical texts—such as his first-year French, accelerated course, and mathematics—the R. F. B. readers have gone slowly to allow the material to sink into the mind. In such cases, many students take notes in Braille straight from the discs. Torgersen, however, prefers to record these texts onto tape first, since the phraseology is sometimes confusing; moving the pick-up arm back and forth for repeats is also troublesome and may damage a record. With his homework on tape, which he can "stop and go, when and where I want," Torgersen finds he can retain the material better in his mind.

Memory retention plays the biggest

role in a blind student's education. In high school, Torgersen had a blind instructor who taught him how to do all his work mentally; with difficult problems, he learned to jot down on his Braille slate one or two intermediate steps to show him where he was in a long problem, but, toward the final steps, he usually found "there wasn't too much left to keep track of."

Over the years, necessity has increased his power of remembrance until now, Torgersen finds, he can memorize mathematical and scientific problems more easily than poetry.

(The basic reason for R. F. B. discs instead of tapes is financial—most of the blind use the free Library of Congress play-back machines; R. F. B. must suit their needs. The discs also are cheaper than tape to reproduce, and more durable for passing from student to student.)

"The great part about R. F. B.," Torgersen said, "is that they spurred me to go back to college. Time is such a factor with us who work. They have really made college accessible. With the texts on discs, a whole new road of freedom stretches before me."

It is this "freedom" of study that has worked seeming miracles for the blind. As Torgersen puts it: "You can feel frustrated when a professor goes like a shot. With the discs you have control over your material. And, because of them, you get the physical and psychological freedom to find your way as a normal student."

He has never met the volunteer readers who last year recorded for him books on algebra, plane and spherical trigonometry, Aristotle, Socrates and ancient Palestine. But, like most of the blind, he can take their measure just the same.

"You can tell the educated man quickly enough," he laughed. "Only reader I wouldn't want to listen to again was the one who murdered the King's English with her Brooklyn accent."

The enriching experience that the little discs can bring to teachers as well as students is exemplified by Prof. Arthur D. Imerti.

Blind since his eighteenth birthday, the professor, now 43, teaches a full program of Spanish and Italian at the New School of Social Research and twice a week gives speech classes at Yeshiva University. His wife, a former Milwaukee school teacher, is his personal reader.

Three years ago Professor Imerti learned about R. F. B.'s service. He has ordered many texts from the agency, particularly foreign language books, and now for the first time is "reading" Camus' "The Stranger" and works by Pirandello and D'Annunzio for his general background —"because, naturally, we must keep up with the new things and review standard works."

The slender professor radiated immense gentleness. He is an enthusiastic globe-trotter "for, while I don't actually see the scenery, it is wonderful to listen to different points of view, to be able to use my languages, to walk foreign streets and identify with other environments." As a teacher and writer—he is working on a translation of the sixteenth-century philosopher Giordano Bruno, who was burned at the stake for espousing intellectual freedom—Professor Imerti finds great advantages in the discs.

"It is difficult to get good Italian readers on a volunteer basis," he said, "who can speak the language fluently. And it's marvelous to have Pirandello and the others read to me by natives. They have helped me in my personal development and in my research. They are part of me now."

Quietly, he picked up half a dozen of the shiny, lightweight discs in his left hand, as his right held his cane.

"It's a little hard to sum up what such an agency does for us," he said, "but I know that they have opened more windows in my life." He seemed to be speaking for many another blind person.

The Blind Teacher in the School for Seeing Children

By MAY SABESTON*

I think we must begin by facing the fact that it is in no way easy for the blind teacher to slip into a position in a school for seeing children. There are great difficulties to be overcome, but these are mainly difficulties of prejudice, not of qualification—blind musicians can hold their own in this respect any day.

I know that it is no good pretending that the prejudice against blind teachers in schools for seeing children does not exist; but with courage and persistence the blind person will eventually find an enlightened headmaster or headmistress who will be willing to engage him.

After teaching for some time in a school for seeing children, one can, in fact, begin to understand some of the headmistress' difficulties. Teachers nowadays are asked to undertake so many duties other than actual teaching—playground duties, dinner duties and 'bus duties, attendance and dinner registers, to mention but a few—and this makes work which a blind teacher cannot easily share with the other seeing members of staff.

The school where I am now teaching has this year had 365 children—one for every day of the year! In a school of this size, there are about a hundred new children arriving each year. I am not clever enough to know all the children in the school, but I think I always get to know the music-lovers, the good singers, and the naughty ones—and it is incredible how often the good singers and the naughty ones overlap.

This thought leads naturally to the much-vexed question of discipline. Another reason for strong prejudice against the employment of blind teachers is the fear that there will be lack of discipline in our classes.

When I first started teaching in schools for seeing children, I'm afraid I meekly accepted the suggestion that another member of staff should be in the room with me, writing for me on the blackboard, seeing the children in and out, and helping me with things for which sight was considered necessary. I very soon decided, however, that this was a bad plan, and that the only way to get a class's full attention is to accept full responsibility for it.

The best way of having a well-behaved class is to have an interested class. If you can make your lessons sufficiently varied and interesting, whether you are blind or not, you will have an attentive class who won't want to misbehave. Of course, there always have been, and there always will be, naughty children, and one has to work out one's own methods of coping with them. On the whole, I find that children don't take advantage of the fact that I can't see. There have been the odd occasions when my nose has led me to the odd girl using nail-varnish, or my ears to the click of knitting-needles which should not have been clicking during a singing lesson, but these are rare occurrences, and the mere spotting of such things increases one's reputation. However, the discipline

*Miss Sebeston, a teacher in England, was trained at the Royal Academy of Music where she had a most distinguished career. She became a Gold Medallist and an A.R.A.M. She has published numerous compositions and is one of the better known blind musicians alive today. This article appeared originally in *The New Beacon*, October, 1959, a magazine of blind welfare published by the Royal National Institute for the Blind in London.

of the school as a whole counts for a great deal, and I am fortunate in the school at which I teach in this respect.

The classes which I teach are of twenty-five to forty children, and occasionally I have two classes together. At least once a week, I take the whole school together in the school hall. With so many children, I don't feel at all badly about this, as any sighted teacher taking so many children would do the same thing. It is a great help to have so many children shown to their places, and to have someone keep an eye on them whilst I am sitting at the piano. With a large number of children, I must, of course, use the hall. But a hall with only one or two classes in it is an uncomfortable place for a blind person. A large echoing hall is not a very friendly place, and for a normal-sized class, I much prefer the intimacy of my own classroom or music-room. This feeling of intimacy is essential between a blind teacher and seeing pupils, and good teaching depends upon it. Teachers in so many schools have to take their singing lessons in large echoing halls, but unless he or she must teach large numbers of children, I think the blind teacher will be much happier and will achieve better results in his own classroom.

There is more negative type of misbehaviour which, as a blind teacher in a seeing school, I find I can deal with much more successfully in a classroom than in a hall. This comes from children who, though not actively troublesome, have nevertheless decided they are not going to be bothered to sing. They probably think "She is blind, so she won't know if I'm not joining in." I try to overcome this by introducing lots of group work into the singing-classes. If two or three people are not singing when the whole class is, it is easy for them not to be missed. When they are divided into small groups, however, it is much easier to hear when they are not pulling their weight. The secret, too, is to vary the group formations. Sometimes I use seat formation groupings, sometimes groups from the various school houses, sometimes we group alphabetically, and always we take our cues from the words of the songs. All these variations add interest, and foster the competitive spirit; and quite apart from this aspect, or perhaps deriving from it, I have become very interested in arranging performances with patterns of different voice groupings. Even with unison songs, this method can be most effective. Small groups and large groups can alternate, a single voice comes here, the whole class, or even the whole school, there. It is fascinating to arrange songs in this way; it keeps the singers alert and on tiptoe to enter at their own appointed places, and gives a vocal effect comparable with orchestration.

I always have Braille copies with me in the classroom, and I have no qualms about using them in front of seeing children when I need to do so. It gives both them and me confidence to know that we are all "seeing" the same things, and I know that I can probably answer their questions much more accurately with these copies to hand.

In my early days of schoolteaching, the scarcity of school music published in Braille was definitely a problem, and it was very difficult to find works which coincided with the printed copies which were available in most of the schools where I taught. Now the position is much better, and such books as THE NEW NATIONAL SONG BOOK, THE OXFORD CAROL BOOK, and SING CARE AWAY, have solved many problems for me, and, no doubt, for other blind teachers in seeing schools. The recorded books are immensely valuable too, and I have recently been delighted to receive the first volumes of THE OXFORD SCHOOL MUSIC BOOK, Senior Section. This seems to be to be the answer to the blind person's prayer, and I shall certainly use it in my next year's teaching—and, incidentally, I shall

go on praying for the next volume! In this new book I am very glad to find that songs are written in the new method of a line of words followed by one, slightly indented, of music, which makes sight-reading with the class a much mose possible propostion. I have been using this method in manuscript transcriptions for some years now, and what a delight it is to find the song already arranged in this way for me in this new book. Personally, I think this method of writing the words and music of songs, and the writing-in of the vocal outline of a song with the accompaniment, are two most wonderful outcomes of the Paris Conference on Uniform Braille Music Notation. They undoubtedly help tremendously with sight-reading, and reduce memorising difficulties to a minimum.

People often ask me, "Do you use gadgets when teaching sighted children in school?" My answer is a very definite "Yes," if I am convinced that they are foolproof, that I can be certain in showing the children exactly the right thing, and that the gadgets give the right impression. For me, therefore, the New Aid Music Notator was a "must," as soon as I saw the specimen model which was in Mr. Logan's office. As a matter of fact, I had almost to be restrained from carrying it away with me there and then, but I had to content myself with an immediate order for it, and was using it at the beginning of the next term. These New Aid Notators are light-coloured wooden boards with raised lines in the form of music staves, on to which can be placed wooden shapes in the form of notes, rests, and so on. The New Aid Notator replaces the blackboard to some extent, and the blind teacher can either write her own musical examples with it, or can let the pupils write them and can acurately check what they have written. With this device, one gets immediate results, and its great advantage is that the blind teacher can be reasonably certain that the seeing pupils are really looking at the particular thing which is being described. It is so easy for the blind teacher to be describing one thing, and for the seeing pupil to be looking at quite the wrong sign, but this device, which can be felt as well as seen, eliminates such mistakes.

I think it is very important for the blind teacher to try to realise just how important sight is to a seeing child's education. Blind people use touch and sound to help them to memorise, and it is so easy for us to overlook the seeing child's need for visual aids, I used to think it was enough to describe things, but I soon learned how wrong I was about this, and I know that it is worth going to a great deal of trouble to get good diagrams, pictures, etc., so that I can give my pupils as accurate visual illustrations as possible. Sets of pictures of the instruments of the orchestra are very useful in this respect, and similar pictures with which it is possible to decorate the music room.

A blind teacher, like any other teacher, must have a definite method of teaching, but I think it is extremely important that a blind teacher should keep interest and alertness alive by constantly introducing new music, new presentations of old ideas, and by the ever-popular project work so prevalent in schools today.

I said earlier that I have one period each week when I take the whole school together. This used to be listed on my time-table as a period of hymn-singing but now it reads, much more excitingly, "Music Magazine." This gives endless possibilities for class-work, group-work, and for singing by the whole school. We keep good company with the B.B.C. in using Schubert's "To Music" for our signature tune, and we have a number of features, played, sung, and spoken. These include such items as a "Did you know" section, "Composers' Corner," and a section called "Musical Alphabet." I remember that D was a most popular letter, and included music and poetry about Dogs,

Donkeys, and Dobbin the horse, and so was H, with Happy and Humorous music. As an illustration for the latter we sang a song about John Cook's little Grey Mare, who, going up Shooter's Bank, began to kick and to prank, and going up Shooter's Hill, fell down and made her will. "There really is a place called Shooter's Hill," I said, "I used to live quite near it." "Well, John Cook lives next door to me," came a voice from the back!

When I introduced the New Aid Notator to the school, I linked this with a musical play, which we included in one of our Music Magazines. It was acted, spoken, and sung by one form, but there were some songs in which the whole school joined, rather in the manner of the audience's contribution to Britten's "Let's make an Opera." The play was called "Note Island," and it dealt with the adventures of a small girl who was given a book of music on her birthday, and in a dream this became the map to Note Island, to which she was subsequently taken by a little man called Mr. Crotchet. Here, all the people looked like notes, and had to walk at their correct speed in roads which were painted to resemble staves of music. The small girl visited the Note Island School, which was ruled by Headmaster Bass-Clef and Headmistress Treble Clef, and listened to an Arithmetic lesson, in which the "Tables" were sung to verses like this:—

"Semibreves last four beats, minims hold on two,
And crotchets walk one step one beat the way that people do.
So in the time a semibreve takes one step from his door,
A minim can take two steps, and a crotchet can take four."

After this the Note Island School went out for P.T., and did Lines and Spaces drill, singing

"All the little notes must take their places,
Either on the lines or in the spaces."

A story was then read to the school about the Three Accidentals who accidentally met, and although their names were Natural, Sharp and Flat, they tried to sing a song in unison with somewhat dire results.

Now our heroine, thinking it was late, asked "What's the time?" Only to be whisked first into a march, "The time by my music is marching time," and later into a waltz, "The time by my music is waltz time." By the time we had gotten her home and tucked up in bed, I think the children had learned far more about music notation than they would have done from an ordinary book on "The theory of music," and both they and I had enjoyed it all tremendously!

(Condensed from a lecture given by Miss Sabeston at the recent Refresher Course for Blind Teachers of Music.)

The President's Corner

By Donald W. Overbeay, President
American Association of Instructors of the Blind

The 45th Biennial Convention of the American Association of Instructors of the Blind is only a few short months away. I hope you are planning to attend.

The Tennessee School for the Blind, Donelson, Tennessee (just outside of Nashville) will be host to the AAIB from Sunday, June 26, until noon Thursday, June 30. Superintendent E. J. Wood and his fine staff have been hard at work since July 1, 1958, to provide the best living quarters, meals, meeting places and recreation possible. "Southern Hospitality" will be awaiting you in generous quantities.

The Tennessee School for the Blind is a NEW school — beautifully designed buildings on a spacious campus.

Reservations to live *on campus* are limited. Excellent accommodations are also available at motels and hotels. In either case, make application for reservations immediately.

The 45th Biennial Convention will probably be the best attended convention in AAIB history. This is as it should be. Not only has membership increased, but Mr. Max Woolly, Convention Program Chairman, and his committee have arranged an excellent agenda.

As stated in the December issue of *The Journal*, the AAIB holds a "working convention". Everyone has a chance to participate in his or her area of special interest. There were twenty-two (22) workshop groups in Vancouver — from Commercial to Social Studies. These workshops are organized with chairmen, co-chairmen and recorders. Many of these leaders are now at work polling members to determine major areas for discussion and in securing resource persons.

Now is the time to act! Encourage everyone to attend. Make your reservations. Yours will be a real professional experience.

Each biennium more groups attend by bus and carload. Most of these plan vacation trips and do their sight-seeing before and after the convention. Tennessee is a beautiful state of lakes, mountains and historical sites. It is surrounded by other states to which many people come during the summer. It should not be difficult to plan an interesting but inexpensive trip.

The 1960 Membership Drive Is On

By Maurice Olsen, Executive Secretary, AAIB

Any person affiliated with or interested in an organization engaged in the education, guidance, vocational rehabilitation, or occupational placement of the blind or partially seeing is eligible for membership in the American Association of Instructors of the Blind according to the Constitution which was adopted in 1952. Prior to that time only schools and agencies were eligible for membership and voting was by delegates selected by the schools and agencies. Now, all persons who fall into the above

definition may become full voting members of the AAIB upon payment of the $5.00 annual membership fee. This also entitles them to a subscription to the *International Journal for the Education of the Blind* and to a copy of the AAIB CONVENTION PROCEEDINGS. Membership in the AAIB has grown 62% since 1952 when individual AAIB memberships were first inaugurated. This is an average of 8% per year. This year we lost .5% (½ of 1 per cent). We still have vast membership growth possibilities in public school personnel, houseparents, parents, agency for the blind workers, college special education students, alumni of schools for the blind, and libraries.

Current membership in the AAIB stands at 1280 on February 1, 1960. This represents 1144 members in 49 schools for the blind, 77 in public schools, 50 in state and private agencies, and 4 in libraries. The following schools for the blind have 100% AAIB membership in their professional staff: Utah Schools for the Deaf and the Blind, Washington State School for the Blind, South Carolina School for the Deaf and Blind, Iowa Braille and Sight Saving School, Georgia Academy for the Blind, Alabama Institute for the Deaf and Blind, Arizona State School for the Deaf and Blind, Arkansas School for the Blind, Colorado School for the Deaf and Blind, Idaho School for the Deaf and the Blind, Kansas School for the Blind, Florida School for the Deaf and Blind, Minnesota Braille and Sight Saving School, Nebraska School for the Blind, New Mexico School for the Visually Handicapped, North Carolina State School for Blind, North Dakota School for the Blind, Oklahoma School for the Blind, Oregon State School for the Blind, Tennessee School for the Blind, Texas School for the Blind, and W. Pennsylvania School for Blind Children. This is only 22 schools as compared with 23 on June 20, 1958, a loss of 1. The following schools for the blind have 100% AAIB membership in their houseparent staff: Oklahoma School for the Blind, Kentucky School for the Blind, Iowa Braille and Sight Saving School, Kansas School for the Blind, and W. Pennsylvania. This makes a total of 5 schools as compared with 3 in 1958, a gain of 2. The following is the AAIB Double Membership Honor Roll for the 4 schools with 100% in both professional and houseparent staff: Oklahoma School for the Blind, Iowa Braille and Sight Siving School, Kansas School for the Blind, and W. Pennsylvania. The American Printing House sent in 10 members, the American Foundation for the Blind sent in 4.

The following are the membership records in the Canadian Schools: Ontario School for the Blind sent in 13 and the Jericho Hill School sent in 4.

The top 5 schools in total memberships were:

Maryland School for the Blind	60
North Carolina State School for the Blind	59
Perkins School for the Blind	57
Iowa Braille and Sight Saving School	46
Western Pennsylvania School for Blind Children	46

We have also received corporate membership dues from 31 schools for the blind. Our 1960 membership drive is not over until June 30, 1960, which is after the 1960 AAIB Convention in Nashville, Tennessee. The final membership honor roll recognition will then go into the AAIB Convention Proceedings as a permanent record of the professional status of the staffs of the various schools for the blind in the United States and Canada. How many schools will ultimately be 100% this year? How many parents and board members will join this year? We've just begun to grow. Our 1960 membership goal is 1400. Watch us meet it. Help us top it.

The Hermitage, near Nashville, home of Andrew Jackson, seventh President of the United States, is maintained as a historic shrine complete in every detail.

AAIB Convention, 1960

By Dorothy W. Harrison*

Rolling fields, placid lakes and streams, high tree-covered mountains, historic old homes, and white sandy beaches beckon as American Association of Instructors for the Blind members begin making plans for their trek to Tennessee and the Association convention June 26-30 at the School for the Blind in Donelson, just outside Nashville.

Home state of three Presidents, the Nashville area can claim perhaps the foremost of the group, General Andrew Jackson, or "Old Hickory." The others are Andrew Johnson, whose tailor shop stands as a museum in Greeneville, and James K. Polk, whose home still is maintained as it was in his day in Columbia.

Jackson's old home, a "must" for tourists in the vicinity, stands in a secluded woodland on the outskirts of Nashville, a stone's throw from Donelson, near a community that bears his nickname. The classic example of architecture of the period, the Hermitage and grounds around it have been carefully preserved by the Ladies' Hermitage Association as a memorial to the great American. It is furnished with many of Jackson's own possessions and has one of the finest collections of early American furniture in existence. Jackson's tomb lies next to that of his beloved wife Rachel in the colonial gardens adjacent to the house.

Another old home of particular interest to those who know this tragic, yet heroic, story is that of Sam Davis, near Smyrna. Sam Davis at twenty-one was hanged by the Union army as a spy when he repeatedly refused to give to his captors the name of his Confederate commander who fur-

*Mrs. Harrison is the daughter of E. J. Wood, Superintendent of the Tennessee School for the Blind, host school to the Convention.

nished him with papers and information he carried. He said "If I had a thousand lives to live, I would give them all—rather than betray a friend or my country." He was executed Nov. 27, 1863, at Pulaski, Tennessee, without the approval of President Lincoln.

When James Robertson and John Donelson first came down the Cumberland River to settle in the wilderness, they named the fort they built Fort Nashborough. In this camp they withstood many Indian raids and uprisings, and the reproduction of that log fort stands today on First Avenue, its back to the river. Of great interest perhaps are the pioneer and Indian relics it shelters.

The Parthenon, said to be the only exact replica of that of ancient Greece, was erected for the celebration of Tennessee's centennial year, and stands in Centennial Park on the west side of Nashville. It houses many well-known imported statues, and in its basement is a permanent art gallery. In addition, the Parthenon serves as a show place for local art exhibitions.

Seat of the State government, the capitol in Nashville was designed by famed Philadelphia architect William Strickland and has been in use more than a century. Strickland, who died before the building was completed and received burial within its walls, described the building as "essentially Grecian, consisting of a Doric basement, supporting on its four fronts porticos of the Ionic order, taken from the examples of the Erectheum at Athens. In the center of the building rises a tower above the roof to the height of eighty feet, the superstructure of which is taken after the order of the Choragic monument of Lysicrates at Athens." The building has recently been remodeled at a cost of over $3,500,000, but great care has been taken to preserve the integrity of the original design.

The War Memorial Building on Capitol Boulevard, which boasts a large public auditorium, contains plaques bearing the names of 3400 Tennesseeans who gave their lives in World War I, and the basement of the south wing houses a World War II museum. The Tennessee State Office Building, Cordell Hull Office Building, the Supreme Court Building, and the Library and Archives Building complete the Capitol Hill grouping.

For enthusiasts of fishing and water sports, Tennessee is a veritable paradise. Gar Wood called the lakes the "finest regatta waters in America," and Charles F. Chapman, editor of *Motorboating*, said "They are the finest inland cruising waters in the world." Old Hickory Lake and Dam, a part of the vast Tennessee Valley Authority, is only a few miles from the center of Nashville and leaves little to be desired—it offers sandy beaches for swimmers, and facilities for boating and skiing buffs. As in all Tennessee lakes, better fishing grounds would be hard to find—more than 30 kinds of fish are available in the state's 1,000 square miles of lake. If one cares to travel farther, Dale Hollow Reservoir near Celina, and Center Hill near Cookeville also offer excellent fishing opportunities, and most major boat docks have free public picnic grounds and free launching ramps.

Merely interested in a tramp through the woods to enjoy the wildlife and unusual vegetation? Just south of Nashville, Percy Warner and Edwin Warner Parks should be just the ticket. These two parks, located on state highway 100, boast extensive hiking and bridle trails and for a nominal fee horses are available. In addition picnic and playground areas are provided.

Farther away from the city, but well worth the trip if the conventioneer has the time to spare, is the great Smoky Mountains National Park. Its vast forests contain 152 kinds of trees and more than 4000 different types of plant life—the greatest variety found in any one area in

the temperate zones. Hundreds of miles of hiking trails and highways delight the nature-loving tourist.

Gatlinburg, at the foot of the mountains in east Tennessee, has become quite popular as a resort town and proffers an outdoor pageant, "Chucky Jack," drama of John Sevier and the founding of Tennessee, for a gratifying, if different, evening of theater. On the other side of the mountains at Cherokee, N. C., an equally entertaining evening is provided in a pageant produced by the Cherokee Indians, "Unto These Hills," the story of their people. Immensely popular, tickets for both these productions should be obtained well in advance.

To the south, near Chattanooga, is Lookout Mountain and Rock City Gardens, advertised on barns in far more states than the seven that can be seen from its summit.

Children in the group might enjoy a trip to the Nashville Children's Museum in south Nashville. Located in the building that years ago was Peabody College, exhibits include stuffed bears, tigers, deer, and small mammals, and live animals such as reptiles, unusual birds, and again, small mammals, and an intriguing lifelike display of wax wildflowers.

Known as the "Athens of the South," Nashville is perhaps the most collegiate college town of them all. Chief among these colleges are Vanderbilt University; George Peabody College for Teachers; David Lipscomb College; Belmont College; Scarritt College, a Methodist school of missions; Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial University; Fisk University; and Meharry Medical Institute, the latter three being among the most outstanding Negro institutions of higher learning in the world. In addition there are numerous business universities and several other church-supported colleges of lesser renown.

Long an agricultural state, Tennessee has at least 52 different crops, including corn, tobacco, and cotton, but livestock is the greatest single source of farm income. The state is noted for its prize dairy and beef cattle and horses, raising Thoroughbreds, Standardbred, American Saddle Bred Horse, and the famous Tennessee Walking Horse.

Tennessee is now leaping to the fore also as a state of industry. Large industries in Nashville include Genesco, Inc., one of the nation's largest shoe manufacturers; a division of Aladdin Industries; Avco, a division of the Crosley Corporation; Ford Glass Company; Kusan, Inc., one of the largest manufacturers of plastic toys for children; and E. I. DuPont de Nemours Company, rayon and cellophane divisions. The Gates Rubber Company is in the process of building a large ultra-modern plant on the outskirts of the city. Alert Chambers of Commerce in Tennessee towns are attracting more industry each year, such as the new glass factory and paper mill in Kingsport.

At Oak Ridge in east Tennessee, the atom bombs which ended World War II were produced, and the factories and laboratories there remain among the most important in the field of atomic physics. The only atomic museum in the world is located there.

A Mecca for music exponents, Nashville can claim numerous record and music publishing firms. There is little room for doubt of this when, each Saturday afternoon about three, crowds begin to queue up for entrance to the Ryman Auditorium, barn-like home of WSM's famed "Grand Ole Opry," for the weekly performance. This provides quite an evening's entertainment whether or not the visitor cares for country and Western music, and tickets for this, too, must be secured well in advance.

Tennessee, then, could be the perfect place to spend a week or two next June. Superintendent and Mrs. E. J. Wood and his staff will be looking forward to seeing delegates from all over the country at the AAIB Convention "in the good old summertime."

TO PUT IT BRIEFLY

News and Views from the Field

Journalistic adage: "Be brisk, be brief, be bright, be right!"

We Need Your Help

Together we stand and are recognized. We join together in a professional organization to help strengthen the weak, advance the strong, elevate the profession, and encourage public understanding. This is an action program and it needs *your* support.

As we try to strengthen our professional program of service, we inevitably run into higher costs. A do-nothing association can get by on a low budget but this is not getting by cheaply! It costs in that more professional workers leave our special program of educating the blind; it costs in the increased frustration of the individual staff member in his impossible attack on major educational problems single handedly; it costs in lower salaries; it costs in less qualified personnel; its costs in a slower, piecemeal approach to improving the education for all blind students.

Through our Association, we are made strong in the confidence of a team approach to our problems. Through our increased dues, we are armed with increased services to attack these problems. Through a cooperative assault on our problems with the tools that increased professional service will bring, educators of the blind can and must make a major breakthrough in further raising the quality of education offered blind children in our country. The increase in AAIB dues that is to be brought before the 1960 Convention in Nashville is another important step in our march toward progress. The American Association of Instructors of the Blind is moving ahead. Let's all work to give our support to this drive.

Maurice Olsen
Executive Secretary, AAIB

Missouri Teachers Tour Missouri School for the Blind

The new million dollar addition to the Missouri School for the Blind, which provides, among other things, additional dormitory and classroom space, has been completed this fall. Teachers from all over the state were given opportunity to see the new structure as well as to view activities in the school when the teachers of Missouri held their annual meeting in St. Louis early in November.

The tour began early in the afternoon, and teachers were transported free of charge by bus from the convention headquarters in downtown St. Louis out to the school. It seemed to be a very rewarding experience for the members of the faculty, staff and pupils at MSB, as well as for the approximately 500 members of the association who availed themselves of the opportunity. It appears to have been a very successful venture in public relations.

Gretchen T. Gilles, Librarian
Missouri School for the Blind

Northeast Regional Piano Technician's Workshop

The New York State School for the Blind at Batavia played host to a workshop of Piano Technician instructors and

some students from five states and the Province of Ontario on October 23 and 24, 1959. This workshop was held under the auspices of the American Association of Instructors of the Blind, Northeast Regional Division. Member schools were represented by Mr. and Mrs. Jessie Manley and two students of Michigan; Mr. Frank Hoffmaster of West Virginia; Mr. Bob Gohlson and two students from Indiana; Mr. Ron Adams of Ontario; Mr. and Mrs. Sid Durfee from Perkins Institute; Mr. and Mrs. Loren Pelkey and four students of New York State School for the Blind. Other guests included Superintendent S. E. Armstrong of the Ontario School for the Blind; Principal Mosele of Indiana; Mr. Tom Beadnell, former Tuning Instructor at the New York State School for the Blind; the Rochester-Buffalo chapter of the Piano Technicians Guild; Principal Paul Ruhland and Guidance Counselor Tony Cimino of the New York State School. Conflicting dates prevented total representation from all the schools located within the Northeast Division of AAIB.

The participants delved deeply into the problems of instructor-administration relationship, problems of travel for the blind technician, the need for better bookkeeping and advertising methods, as well as technical aspects including the idiosyncrasies of grand, spinet, and upright pianos. In addition, there was a tour through the Knabe division of the Aeolian American Piano Corporation located in East Rochester, New York.

The Workshop Chairman, Sid Durfee, directed an excellent discussion concerning the necessity of advertising and the keeping of records in order to accomplish the many things expected of a businessman. The session on travel brought forth much discussion concerning the various modes of travel and the advantages and disadvantages of each. This included travel using a cane or a seeing eye dog from the standpoint of a tuner-technician.

Out of the discussions came five recommendations which the workshop has proposed to the AAIB for further disecussion during their next meeting in Nashville, Tennessee in June, 1960. The recommendations are as follows:

1. Careful consideration should be given to the urgent need for more time in the instruction of tuner-technicians.

2. The possibility of one additional year for graduating technicians should be considered as a method of implementing the above recommendation.

3. A committee of qualified technicians should be formed for the purpose of setting up standards in matters of shop equipment, course of study, standards of graduation examination procedures, aptitude and qualification tests for prospective technicians.

4. A letter from the workshop to Mr. Loren A. Pelkey to inquire if Dr. Robert Thompson's committee has any recommendations or items for discussion for next summer's agenda and that a copy of this letter be sent to Mr. Joseph Klosterman and that these recommendations be fully discussed at the 1960 AAIB Convention workshop.

5. This committee also went on record as favoring a thorough evaluation of tuning as a vocation successfully practiced by the blind in order to bring to light the full importance of this field.

Loren A. Pelkey
New York State School for the Blind

White House Conference

New Year's resolutions which will guide the thinking of the nation for the next ten years concerning more than 62 million children and young adults will be the product of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth. On March 27 to April 2, 7,000 persons concerned with child-related problems will meet in Washington at the invitation of President Eisenhower to develop recom-

mendations for citizen action programs to meet the needs of America's youth in the next decade.

Dr. Philip S. Barba, of Philadelphia, Chairman of the Committee on Program, has announced 18 forum topics that will provide the framework for Conference discussion and that will deal with many of the problems anticipated in the rapidly changing world of the 1960s.

An entire forum comprising more than 500 people will be devoted to the problems of "youth in conflict", covering all phases of juvenile misbehavior: causes, diagnosis, prevention and rehabilitation.

One forum will devote its energies to the challenge of America's snow-balling mobility of population in relation to health, education, employment, social and cultural life of the young.

Another forum will review the impact of the mass media on children and youth. Workshop discussions within this forum will deal with comic books and comic strips as well as radio, TV and motion pictures.

Throughout the entire Conference a central concern for ideals and values runs parallel to the current national search for a redefinition of these same issues.

White House Conferences on Children and Youth have been a decennial tradition in America since the first was called in 1908 by President Theodore Roseevelt to discuss the plight of the dependent child. Every ten years the incumbent President has called a White House Conference to discuss the ever-widening facets of child-related problems and to recomment solutions.

The following is a complete listing of the 18 forum topics:

THE WORLD AROUND THE YOUNG —

I. Environment — Social Conditions and Physical Facilities which Affect the Development of the Young

II. Mobility — Population Shifts and Changes in Health and Living Conditions, Education, Employment, and Social Situations which Affect the Young in the Community

III. Support — Family Economic Conditions which Affect the Development of the Young

IV. Nurture — Family Life: Attitudes and Practices in Child-Bearing and Child-Rearing

V. Opportunity — Freedom to Participate in Community Life and its Effects on the Young

VI. Free Time — Constructive and Non-Constructive Uses of Free Time and their Effects on the Young

VII. Mass Communication — Trends in Media of Information, Entertainment and Culture which Affect the Development of the Young

VIII. Human Resources — Ensuring Necessary Services to Children and Youth through Effective Personnel

IX. Beliefs — Religious, Spiritual and Secular Beliefs and Personal Codes of Conduct which Affect the Development of the Young

THE YOUNG IN THE WORLD —

X. Moving Toward Maturity: Birth to Puberty — Growth, Care and Training of Body, Mind and Emotions

XI. Moving Toward Maturity: Puberty to Young Adulthood — Growth, Care and Training of Body, Mind and Emotions

XII. The Young as Learners and Thinkers — Educating Each Child to his Full Potential

XIII. The Young as Doers — Involving the Young in Work and Responsibilities

XIV. The Young as Citizens — Involving the Young in Service to the Community and the Nation

XV. The Young with Mental Handicaps — Knowing, Understanding and Helping the Mentally Handicapped

XVI. The Young with Physical Handicaps — Knowing, Understanding and Helping the Physically Handicapped

XVII. The Young in Conflict — Knowing, Understanding and Helping the Maladjusted

XVIII. The Young with Social Handicaps — Knowing, Understanding and Helping the Socially Handicapped

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Traffic Problems

Last summer I asked for answers to questions relative to foot travel problems for blind children who must cross heavily trafficked roads. We have a difficult problem with some help from a unique warn-

ing sign, but it is not enough. Discussion sessions with our City Traffic Director, our City Council, and our State Highway Department have produced the recommendation for the construction of an overpass as the only safe method for blind children and pedestrians in general to cross a cross-town expressway. This is at a point where vehicular crossing is of such small consequence that a median way was constructed to bar it.

The results of the questionnaire are interesting to me, and some of the replies indicated a desire to know the statistics, so here are the results of the 41 answers received:

13 have no problem
10 have "Stop and Go" signs with push button and buzzer
5 have regular "Stop and Go" signs
2 have warning lights indicating "Crossing for Blind Children"
1 will soon have a "Stop and Go" sign with button and buzzer
1 has a bypass
9 have no help

We are now in the process of looking for a source of money to use for the purchase of a certain quantity of Washington Fir, etc.

Byron Berhow, Superintendent
Washington State School for the Blind

Guidance Program Started at Louisiana School for Blind

An organized guidance program had its inception at the Louisiana State School for Blind, Southern University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, August 1959. The need for this added service has long been felt. Its realization is like "a dream come true."

The scope of guidance is so very broad, it gives place to many unexplored avenues. Every person concerned with the training of the whole child, and in this instance, the visually handicapped child, shares in this program. The guidance program is multi-phasic in nature in that it includes many persons—parents, superintendents, principals, teachers, nurses, doctors, houseparents, guidance counselors and, as mentioned earlier, any persons who are concerned with the development of the whole child.

The reality of this program has been made possible only as a result of the untiring efforts and foresight of the principal, Mrs. I. M. Theus, and the cooperation of her faculty and staff who have long sensed a need for guidance services.

Many people contribute to the effectiveness of a guidance program—especially a guidance counselor who is qualified for the position by virtue of his training and personal concern for the children involved. We, at the school, feel very fortunate in having an individual join the staff who is excellently qualified for the position, thus assuring the best possible results from these specialized services.

Mr. Maefield Kiper has the distinction of being the first person to hold this position since the school was established in 1922. Prior to his appointment as counselor Mr. Kiper served as teacher and assistant principal in the public schools in Louisiana. He is a two-year veteran of World War II. Mr. Kiper holds a Bachelor of Science degree from Southern University. He has a Master of Education degree from Louisiana State University and has done further study at the same university.

Mr. Kiper is married to the former Miss Betty Graves and has one child, a son.

Miss Mary Edith Moody, Instructor
Louisiana State School for Blind
Southern University
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

A Generous Bequest

The P-TA of the Maryland School for the Blind has given a contribution to the AAIB of $239.00. This organization

voted to give $1.00 for each pupil enrolled in the school. This is an important step by parents in the recognition of the expanded role of AAIB in the education of blind children. Other school P-TA organizations, please copy!

Gleaned from "Fountainhead"

It is interesting to note that the peak enrollment may be in our schools and classes this year. Figures from the Industrial Home for the Blind in New York City indicate that in Brooklyn, Queens, Nassau, and Suffolk Counties there are 72 blind children in the age group five years old and younger, while there are 401 in the age group of six to fourteen years old, and 62 in the age group fifteen to seventeen. Although six to fourteen covers a nine-year period and zero to five covers only a five-year period (half as many years), the number in the zero to five group is only one-fifth as many as in the six to fourteen group.

According to APHB figures for January 5, 1959, there were 1,411 blind children in the second grade, 1,916 in the first grade, but only 1,256 in kindergarten. Of course not all areas of the U.S.A. have kindergartens; some areas enroll the blind child directly into the first grade. But these statistics may still indicate that the peak year is moving through our grade schools already and would be in second grade next year. (Editor's note: If this is true, it is a most encouraging trend.)

For the first time, there will be a workshop for parents scheduled at the 1960 AAIB Convention in Nashville. This is the year to get parents to join AAIB.

* * *

Some schools are encouraging the P-TA to help raise money to pay part of teachers', houseparents' and parents' expenses to the AAIB Convention . . . Indiana has a dormitory area for senior-girl living and housekeeping practice. The girls have the complete charge and responsibility for the care of themselves and their dormitory facilities — sleeping, eating, and living. . . Michigan has been experimenting with using Grade One Braille with slow pupils. It is too early yet to determine if such pupils are helped in their reading by this. . . Maryland has students going to bricklaying and automotive vocational high schools downtown. It is more practical than hiring a teacher at the school for a few students. . . Missouri is going to get a stocked farm out from the school so that regular farm experiences may be included in the educational program. Other downtown schools should take notice. Oklahoma's school, at the city's edge, has its farm directly connected with the campus and engages in a variety of stock and poultry raising projects. . . Florida and New York Institute have been exchanging tapes in science classes. Florida sent a tape with sound effects on rockets from the Cape. New York Institute, not to be outdone, launched their own rocket after one failure — a better record than the Government has. . . Perkins Institute sent in their school's AAIB corporate membership payment to the tune of $2.50 per student. This is five times the actual dues. . . More and more schools are offering ham radio instruction, and the schools have their own receiving and sending equipment. . . How about someone who is interested in organizing a ham radio club for blind students of the U.S. and Canada (or of the world). We could really have a fast communication of bowling scores then. . . Brantford (Ontario) has an exploratory factory production training program on the second floor of their Industrial Arts Shop. Students do timed assembly and piece-work production, and graduate through more complicated as-

Editor's Note: "Fountainhead" is a mimeographed monthly bulletin from the office of Maurice Olsen, Executive Secretary of AAIB, mailed out to all schools. For other facts and figures, which we do not have room to reproduce here, please see your school copy.

semblies in their training in factory production under demanding piece-work situations.

Heads Up!

In the course of one's teaching career many attempts to correct bad habits are made. Some of these bad habits are conquered, some are not. At least teachers can look back upon a year's work and point out that they have tried their best. Sometimes a pattern has been set in one year and the goal is not reached until three or four years later. However, when results are evident in the same year, one feels that an accomplishment has been made.

In educating blind children some of the same problems are presented again and again. One problem is the matter of posture. There are children with varying degrees of bad posture in all our classes. There is no doubt that our desire is to help these children immediately. But we are all aware of the fact that results do not occur overnight. Hard work and cooperation on the part of the child is needed. He must feel the need to correct his posture as well as it is felt by the teacher. Success comes only when a child is willing to take vigorous and sustained action to correct a bad habit.

Last year John came to the fourth grade room with an acute posture problem. John's face was not visible at first glance. All that could be seen was the top of his head. His chin rested on his chest.

Immediately the thought came that the least one can do in this situation was to start the child thinking in terms of raising his head. That was easier said than done, since this was a deep-seated problem with the child. In fact, it was the concern of the parents, too. To such an extent was it a concern that they had consulted a physician to ask if a brace could be used to solve the problem. Although the doctor agreed to do so, the parents were not thoroughly convinced that psychologically, this would be the best approach. Their next thought was to discuss the matter with Dr. Berthold Lowenfeld, Superintendent of the California School for the Blind. In Dr. Lowenfeld's opinion the idea of the brace was not best for the child. All this background information was mentioned to the instructor at the beginning of the year.

Making a blind child realize that his appearance is not acceptable is difficult, since he cannot prove for himself that you are either right or wrong. No mirror will tell him or convince him. Telling a nine-year-old that in ten years, if he keeps up this practice, his posture will be so undesirable that no girl or employer would be favorably impressed, is also a problem. In other words, verbal appeal, although important, is not always very effective.

Making a game of this matter of posture is one means of accomplishment. The old game of balancing a book on one's head will work. In this case an abalone shell was used because it is somewhat curved and fits like a cap. The trick was to keep the shell on, first for short periods of time and gradually increasing the wearing time. Praising the child for balancing the shell played an important part.

The possibility of the child's eyes tearing because they are now coming into constant contact with the light, the grimaces he may make in his efforts to keep his head up, the sneezing that may occur as a result of the eyes tearing, should not bother the instructor. All these will pass on as the child becomes accustomed to his new way of walking and sitting.

Results come slowly. First the forehead becomes sunburned and later the nose shows signs of exposure to the sun. When at the end of the year, one finds that without the shell the child is holding up his head as high as he was with the shell, one realizes that his efforts are worthwhile.

There are many ways to reach the same goal. One of the greatest satisfactions that comes to a teacher is the feeling of being able to discover and successfully carry out a program of improvement. It surely helps to work in a situation where a teacher is free to use his ingenuity to accomplish his goal.

Mrs. Josephine Buell
California School for the Blind

Is Federal Aid Our Answer?

Quite often, when a problem of considerable proportions arises in any segment of our American society, those affected looked to the Federal Government as the panacea to cure any economic distress. This would include our state school systems, and there are many who are more or less bent upon getting the Federal Government more deeply involved with the school systems of our country, whether it be through construction of new buildings or through the National Defense Education Act or through the use of surplus commodities in school lunch programs. Many of these things result in considerable good being accomplished. But, could not the same results be attained in most instances by going no further than the State level? To prove our point, let us look at a ten-year record.

Since 1950, we find that 11,200,000 *additional* students have been assimilated into the public school program. To take care of this increase, 600,000 new classrooms have been constructed and 500,000 new teachers have been employed according to statistics taken from the January 2, 1960 *Tulsa* (Oklahoma) *Tribune*. The increase in instructional staff has been at a rate 7 per cent higher than the increase of students over the same period. To pay for all of this, the *local* taxpayer has done a pretty fair job (and remember that this same *local* taxpayer is the man who pays the State and Federal taxes, too).

At the same time that the local taxpayer has been taking care of many of the physical and numerical aspects of education in his community, he has paid for a healthy boost in teacher salaries. Ten years ago, the average annual salary on a national level was $3,010. Today, it is $5,160, which is an increase of 71 per cent! Summing up all of these (new construction, more teachers, better salaries), we find that $15,000,000,000 goes into schools annually at the present. This would seem to indicate that the majority of the taxpayers (who vote the bonds and elect the legislatures) are aware of their school needs. Of course, there are some instances in some communities where the local taxpayers would prefer to go along for a free ride—something to be corrected in my state of Oklahoma as well as your state, I am sure. But in my opinion, local level tax equalization to balance the burden is much to be preferred to further federalization. The dollars that go to Washington *always* come back home in fewer numbers.

So, the past ten years have shown that people can do their own job almost entirely without help from outside the State in the matter of education. This is one reason that we administrators of state schools for blind children should not be unduly concerned with the fact that our schools cannot, under present interpretation of the Federal law (Titles III and V-A of the National Defense Education Act) share in money to strengthen instruction in science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages. If we *want* to, we can do the job on our own, thank you. And I'm sure that most of us have only *one* desire educationwise, and that is to administer better schools in all respects—even without Federal aid.

V. R. Carter, Editor
The International Journal for the Education of the Blind

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